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ABSTRACT

The third part of a three-part assessment of community education research needs, this report attempted to formulate research questions and identify research needs related to community involvement in community education. It begins with a rationale for citizen participation and the function of citizen participation in community education. It presents a historical perspective and lists several forms of citizen participation. The barriers to and benefits of citizen participation are highlighted. A review of research describes research studies on citizen participation issues that relate to community education. The report concludes with a list of critical questions and research needs for researchers in community education to examine. A twenty-one page list of sources consulted by the authors is included. (Author/JM)

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Citizen Participation Issues

Nancy C. Cook

Research Report 79-103

Mid Atlantic Consortium for Community Education

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

INTRODUCTION.. 1

Purpose of the Report................................ 1

Rationale for Citizen Participation.................. 5

Citizen Participation Function in Community Education.. 8

MODES OF INVOLVEMENT.................................. 10

Historical Perspective............................... 10

Forms of Citizen Participation....................... 17

1. Use of Volunteers and Paraprofessionals.... 25

2. Use of School-Community Committees and Councils.............................. 28

VALUE OF CITIZEN PARTICIPATION........................ 41

RESEARCH.. 46

Review of Research................................... 46

Research Needs....................................... 85

SOURCES CONSULTED..................................... 94

PREFACE

This document is part of a series of research reports prepared during 1978-79 in conjunction with an action plan for community education research in the Mid-Atlantic region. The research plan is one component of the 1978-83 Mid-Atlantic Community Education Consortium's overall effort in community education development.

The shortage of research studies on specific aspects of community education influenced the decision to develop a research agenda. Three research reports (one each on Facilities, Interagency and Citizen Participation) concluded with lists of research questions that are worthy of investigation. The questions were used to develop a prospectus on community education research, one that is expected to generate research proposals.

There is a growing recognition of the importance of research and evaluation among the ranks of community education practitioners as well as college and university faculty. Some researchers are moving toward studies that attempt to answer the difficult aspects of community education. For example, what differences are there in communities or school systems because community education has been implemented? Generating data to address this question requires many modes of inquiry, several of which are time-consuming and costly. Field studies, ethnographies, case studies and policy analysis studies require percise preparation and training.

Moreover, the investigator does not have the convenience of studying a community with a mailed survey instrument.

Most community education research to date has been quantitative; it has also been doctoral dissertation in format. Agendas for research can guide a variety of investigations, using different methodologies. The agenda serves as a springboard; it raises key questions and suggests avenues to explore.

The results of research studies are often unexplained. The researcher doesn't ordinarily communicate with field practitioners, and sometimes not even with fellow researchers, except through journal articles or papers presented at meetings or conferences.

An active program of research and evaluation is essential if community educators are serious about sustaining and expanding developmental efforts, nationally. Legislators and policy makers are becoming less interested in numbers counting and more interested in the qualitative factors noted earlier. A systematic, national research undertaking can be one useful strategy for gaining supporters and advocates of community education. In addition, research results can be used far more successfully in planning in-service and on-going training activities for professionals and community members.

This series of research reports represents the work of many individuals. Nancy C. Cook, an educational consultant and writer, was the primary contractor. She was assisted by Deborah Spivey, Jack Ogilvie and Rebecca Hutton who scoured libraries, abstracted materials and helped in numberous phases of the background research. Pat McAndrew advised generously regarding the use of ERIC as did Bill Higgins of the National Institute of Education. The members of the Mid-Atlantic Consortium Research and Evaluation Board (listed in the front) deserve the credit for mapping the plan which produced the three research reports before actually doing a particular study. Teams of reviewers graciously gave of their time and knowledge to react to working drafts of each document. They, too, are listed at the beginning of each report. Ginny Alley of the Mid-Atlantic Center did her customary typing magic on both the working and final drafts. It is impossible to recall every conversation and piece of advice from friends and colleagues. So many people contributed to this enormous, year-long venture. I would like, however, to express special appreciation to two individuals. Professor Gail McCutcheon provided lengthy and penetrating comments on the revised Research Plan developed in conjunction with the Research and Evaluation Board. Professor Terry A. Schwartz also advised at several points along the way. Her advice was particularly helpful in shaping follow-up plans for 1979-80. We all await reaction from the field.

Michael H. Kaplan
Charlottesville Virginia
May 1979

8

INTRODUCTION

Purpose of the Report

This report represents an attempt to identify and describe the historical basis and the current status, through the literature and the research, of citizen participation as it relates to community education practices, in an attempt to identify and recommend crucial research needs and to raise some critical questions that affect community involvement within the community education paradigm. This report was not designed to be a comprehensive review of the literature and research on the extensive field of citizen participation; it was not intended to be an analysis of research findings. No definitive statements are intended or presumed. This work was proposed for purposes of identifying and describing how citizen participation functions with regard to the community education precepts.

The author began this study with no preconceived notions, with no questions or hypotheses posed at the outside, and with no intent of ultimately formulating a definitive statement relative to citizen participation; rather, the author attempted to sort out, identify and describe the current state of the art.

The methodology consisted of first compiling an exahustive bibliography by means of a literature search.

With the assistance of Dr. William Higgins of the Educational Reference Center of the National Institute of Education and Mrs. Pat McAndrew of the Science Technology Information Center of the University of Virginia, an extensive computer search was conducted, utilizing twenty-three descriptors relating to citizen participation in the ERIC-CIJE system. Indices, Dissertation Abstracts and catalogues were searched, materials ordered and reviewed, personel correspondence ensued for purposes of procuring otherwise unavailable materials. Those sources found to be pertinent to this study are included in the "Sources Consulted" section of this paper.

The findings were then broken out into major categories, the first distinction being made between literature and research. In the literature some logical patterns emerged and the review took on its present form:

I. The Introduction, including the purpose of the report, the rationale for citizen participation and the citizen participation function in community education.

II. Modes of Involvement, including historical perspectives and forms of citizen participation.

III. The Value of Citizen Participation, focusing on the barriers and benefits of citizen participation.

IV. The Research section is further divided into two sub-sections:

1) Review of research describes the purposes and findings of various studies of citizen participation issues as they relate either marginally or specifically to the community education concept.

2) Research needs were derived from various sources. Those research questions identified by the two symposia on Research Needs for Community Education and those adduced by the former Office of Community Education Research were extrapolated and included in this section. The possible research studies were listed, as were those that evolved from the author's intuitive notions based on the community education philosophy. Finally, members of the Review Team who reacted to the various draft forms of this paper contributed a number of significant questions that merit further analysis. The paper, then, concludes with a list of critical questions that researchers in community education should examine.

V. Sources Consulted, including all materials that were reviewed for this report.

The concept of citizen participation/citizen involvement/community involvement knows many forms and multitudinous interpretations. It should be noted from the outset that these terms will be used interchangably, within the limiting parameters of this study.

Various descriptions, definitions, and conceptualizations of these terms have emerged in recent years. Fried

(1978) contended that "whether we call it 'participation' or 'involvement', citizen participation is an idea that lends itself to the illusion as well as the reality of power sharing." (p. 9). Another notion was advanced by the National School Public Relations Association (1977), that the concept of community involvement, expressed simply, attempts to bring decision-making to a level as close as possible to the people affected by those decisions (p. 87). Founded in the precept that everyone has a contribution to make as well as talents and abilities to offer, the concept furthers the democratic doctrine. Davies (1978) regarded citizen participation as empowering the powerless and revitalizing grassroots democracy, culminating in diminished authority for professionals and bureaucrats. Still another view of citizen participation is that of a "way of organizing those individuals who are presently excluded from policy decision-making arenas in order to ensure that their interests are taken into account" (Saliterman, in Cahn and Passett, 1971, p. 227). Writers are currently decrying the paternalism of "doing for" or "doing to" and are opting for the shared responsibility of (Deschler and Erlich, 1972). Baillie (1972) concurs, maintaining that "doing for" is dysfunctional.

Apropos to this study, the concept of community/ citizen involvement/participation will be examined within the framework of the community education philosophy; hence, the reader may notice some blatant deletions. With the given framework, the immense amount of literature and research on school-community relations, as well as educational sociology and anthropology, will be examined only in view of the relationship within the context of citizen participation trends in community education programs. And, since the purpose of this investigation is to identify, describe and review the current status and historical basis for citizen participation through the existing literature and research within the community education paradigm, no attempt at analysis is to be presumed. Likewise, it was decided to not delve into the fields of decentralization, community control or other similar current issues except as they relate directly to community education.

This investigation remains an attempt to ascertain the state of the art of citizen participation patterns in community education, from which research needs and questions may be extrapolated in hopes of generating vital research in the field.

Rationale for Citizen Participation

The area of grassroots involvement in education, although not a new phenomenon, has achieved much exposure, particularly since the mid 1960's. The growing role of local citizens in the schools is on the upswing, as the literature attests. Deshler and Erlich (1972) provide four reasons for this increased involvement: 1) the community education movement is spreading rapidly; 2) local citizens in urban areas are pushing for radical changes in school government; 3) young people have generally suffered alienation; 4) the educational process is being demystified (p. 173). Another six reasons for citizen participation were provided by Davies, et al. (1977), as part of a six-part scheme for classifying the rationales most often provided for participation. These reasons are attempts to affect:

- Policy -- Citizen participation leads to institutional policies which are more responsive to the needs of constituents and communities served. Citizen participation will contribute to developing school policies and practices which are most effective and equitable than is generally the case now.
- Service delivery -- Citizen participation may improve the nature and quality of educational services. The capacity of the institution to understand and solve educational problems is enhanced if parents and other citizens are part of the problem-solving effort.
- Community development -- Effective citizen participation may contribute to the development of a healthy and stable community, where goods and services are adequately and fairly distributed and where people have a sense of their collective efficacy, confidence and power.
- Individual development -- Participation can contribute to the development of a sense of efficacy and confidence on the part of the constituents of citizen organizations. Participation also may provide other benefits to individuals -- training, education, job advancement, personal status, and social pleasure.
- Performance of students in schools -- Citizen participation can contribute to improved performance by students, with higher levels of academic achievement; lower rates of truancy, dropouts, vandalism, discipline, and other problems; better student attitudes and behavior; and better post-secondary education.

> - Organizational effectiveness -- Participation can contribute to making citizen organizations more effective. (It is both an input and output, cause and effect.) (p. 12)

Fantini (1978) noted that the two primary participants are the parent and the learner. Others include other agencies and institutions, senior citizens, clergy, the cultural community, the medical and psychological community, the legal arena, business and industry, military organizations, agricultural stations, and government, all of which have a vested interest in public education; hence, the educative community transcends the physical confines of the school, just as citizen participation transcends parental involvement. Citizen participation then is the "active expression of our (professional educators.) faith in the dignity and the worth of the individual" (Cahn and Cahn, 1971). It is students, parents, educators, and laymen addressing real community problems and common interests and concerns.

Strang (1953) submitted that:

> Among the attitudes most important in community school relations are faith in people and respect for them. Basic is the belief that people in every local community a) know their needs, b) have simple, practical ideas about how these needs can be met, c) can and will take responsibility for carrying out their ideas, and d) have faith that the potential leaders in their midst will emerge as challenging situations call for their services. (p. 156).

Through the literature and research, it will become evident that citizen involvement in the educational process can make unique and major contributions.

The Citizen Participation Function in Community Education

That active citizen participation is a crucial element to the community education process is a resounding theme throughout the literature. Minzey (1974), Decker (1972), Kerensky and Melby (1975), Olsen and Clark (1977), Seay (1974), Totten (1970), and a host of others, identify the concept of citizen involvement as one of the more decisive factors of successful community education implementation. Melby (in Hickey and Van Voorhees, 1969) in calling community education "America's social imperative," deemed parent involvement as crucial. In the same work, Van Voorhees recommended in his three-phase approach to community education development that local citizens should be involved at each stage--study, planning, and action (1969). Olsen and Clark (1977) contended that "citizen participation is indeed the heart and soul of the community education philosophy" (p. 76). Minzey and Olsen (in Hickey and Van Voorhees, 1969) reiterated that the "degree of success of community education is determined by the degree to which community interaction is successfully realized" (p. 34). In the same work, Berridge expressed his belief that "the purpose of contemporary community education programs is the involvement of people in the development of the educationally oriented community"

(p. 25). The National School Public Relations Association (NSPRA), as a result of a 1973 Education U.S.A. Study, confirmed that "citizen participation in schools is developed most fully through the concept of community education. The concept is based on the belief that the schools belong to the community and that learning can occur outside the classroom" (NSPRA, 1973, p. 7). Longstreth and Porter (1975) submitted that the community school actively encourages community involvement. "It is the vehicle through which the community is assisted in solving its own problems and in improving the quality of life within the community. Advisory councils and ad hoc committees are encouraged" p. 18. With regard to advisory councils as a means of fostering citizen participation (which will be examined later in this paper), Seay (1974) asserted that "community advisory councils with lay representation are the lifeline of community education" (p. 185).

As critical as citizen participation is to the success of community education, however, it sometimes does not work. Warden (1971) addressed this problem:

> Many community education programs have gotten people into the schools only to have the involvement end at this point. Community education has suffered from the lack of effective alternatives to initially planning programs which involve community residents. (p. 9).

Likewise did Tobias and Hager (1979) acknowledge possible divergences from the ideal, in three different routes citizen participation may follow:

1. It may support or supplement a fixed statement of public education procedure;

2. It may align itself with teachers' organizations creating a role in policy-solving while rejecting its philosophy,

3. It may become a vehicle for the development of a community power structure to maintain local influence in decision-making and to make policies more representative of the community's needs. (p. 237)

With regard to citizen participation within the community education framework, Warden (1977) observed that "community schools place a high emphasis upon the roles of both professionals and lay people alike. Value is placed upon both the development of local programs and the process of individual and group development which contributes to community development" (p. 11).

MODES OF INVOLVEMENT

Historical Perspective

The origins of citizen participation are deeply rooted in the basic premises upon which this nation was conceived--those of a participatory democracy. American schools of colonial days were extensions of the strong influences of the home. Early settlers built schools, hired teachers, determined how and what was to be taught. Town meetings were held in the school buildings. Early efforts toward citizen involvement in education included societies for the promotion of agriculture, beginning around 1785 in Philadelphia. Josiah Holbrook's concept of the lyceum, established in 1826, was another, the purpose of which was twofold: 1) to promote mutual improvement of the members through study and association; 2) to stimulate and support the movement for the establishment of tax-supported common schools (Cook, 1977).

The "old field school" in rural areas was so much bound to its patrons (children, youth, and adults), that it closed during spring planting and fall harvesting to enable students to assist in farm work; it became known as the "lay-by" school.

In 1913 James Conant suggested that the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association examine the concept of citizen participation by devising a citizen-led, citizen-serving group to develop possible solutions to problems that were to confront a future educational system (Martin, 1974).

Davies (1977) and Olsen (1954) and others reported that the concept of a school council originated in Berkeley, California in 1919 as the first coordinating council was established as a means of addressing youth problems in the area; however, the literature indicates that a forerunner existed. The Penn School, located on an isolated island off the South Carolina coast, had an active community council as early as 1880, that sought and received participation from a representative cross-section of the island residents. Subsequent councils took on many forms, for example: Problem-study groups, child-study groups, youth groups and mass meetings.

With the coming of the Depression in the early thirties and the subsequent federal recovery programs the Works Progress Administration (W.P.A.) emerged from the Federal Emergency Relief Administration. The projects of the WPA were described in an earlier paper; yet, it should be noted now that one of the provisions of the W.P.A. was the establishment of advisory commitees. "At the local level in some states the school superintendent, in collaboration with the state (W.P.A.) director, appoints a lay committee or council to advise on the program in whole or in part. Some of these committees have actually become autonomous adult education councils." (Campbell, 1939, p. 20); "local advisory committees on workers' education have been appointed in almost every city in which the . . . program has been established" (p. 98).

Throughout the 1920's and 1930's citizen involvement with the rural schools had generated enough support for local schools to construct and house community canneries, frozen food lockers, creosote vats, sawmills, farm shops for maintaining farm equipment, plant nurseries and greenhouses, seed treating facilities, potato curing houses, and other such operations for community use.

In Greenville, South Carolina, a five year project was instituted for purposes of "helping people to help themselves" (Brunner, 1942, p. 94), which ultimately became a national model for community development. The Greenville County Council for Community Development, from 1936-1941, resulted in six community schools being established, each adapting its program to the needs of the community served. The real strength and backbone of this project was its local community councils. Eight local councils were established, consisting of representatives from the schools, the ministry, and concerned citizens who, as a group, identified community problems and developed strategies to solve them. Some of their achievements included: 1) a cooperative store, 2) a federally-chartered credit union, 3) a beautification program, 4) a community health clinic, 5) a community egg hatchery, 6) a branch of the county library, 7) hot lunches in all schools, 8) improvement in achievement records in the school (particularly in reading, 9) a spirit of cooperation between and among all community members. Brunner summarized that the "major contribution of the councils has been in arousing the interest of the communities in solving their own problems and in demonstrating ways in which solutions could be reached. It has demonstrated the value, not to say necessity, of an educational approach to such problems in the effecting of social change" (Brunner, 1942, p. 112).

In the characteristics of the community school of 1945, listed by Olsen (1949), the concept of citizen involvement had come to be recognized as a vital component of a community school program:

> The community school shares with the citizen's continuing responsibility for the identification of community needs and the development of subsequent action programs to meet these needs (p. xiii)

The Battle Creek (Michigan) Public Schools Advisory Council was formed in 1946. According to superintendent Virgil M. Rogers, the council had proven invaluable to us as a means of keeping the community informed on our educational program as well as serving as an effective body of lay citizens who cooperate whole heartedly with the faculty and administration in the development of educational policy and programs through school-community participation (in Strang, 1953). There were four primary philosophical reasons behind the establishment of this council:

1) It should serve as a permanent means of maintaining close working relationships with parents and other citizens in the community;

2) The council should devote its meetings to questions of immediate or long-term planning and of concrete school policy and procedures;

3) Time should be allowed for frank consideration of suggestions, criticisms, and appraisals of educational practice;

4) Educational philosophy of the district should foster free function of the advisory group without tension, insecurity, or serious conflict regarding the development

of education in the community (Strang, 1953).

It will become evident through the investigation of the contemporary advisory councils in a subsequent section of this paper that these philosophical musings are currently relevant.

McClore's 1948 study of selected community school programs in the South described twenty-two community schools in thirteen southern states. One of his selection criteria was a strong community or parent involvement component, a description of which was provided in each account. Participation or involvement was manifested in various forms, either through citizen councils, mother's clubs, school improvement associations, or volunteerism.

The National Citizens Committee for public schools, incorporated in 1949, was funded by the Carnegie Corporation and the General Education Board to stimulate public interest in schooling and to develop local plans and action groups. By prearrangement this organization dissolved in 1956 and was replaced by the National Citizens' Council for Better Schools (Tirozzi, 1973).

Despite the early descriptive accounts of the various forms of citizen advisory councils, Cwik, King, and Van Voorhees (1975) reported that "little documentation exists concerning the existence of the advisory council vis-a-vis the community education movement." (p. 6) Woons (1972) traced the origin of the community school council to Flint, Michigan, where it was first organized at the Potter School in 1952, followed by the Merrill and Freeman community schools in 1954. The membership in the original advisory councils, contended Woons, consisted of PTA members, with a standing invitation issued to community leaders, businessmen, and parents to assist the community school director in the planning and utilization of the gymnasium and school facilities.

O'Neil (1972) suggested that the formation of councils evolved from an attempt to implement the community education philosophy. Nonetheless, Davies (1977) declared that by 1954 an estimated 10,000 citizens advisory councils were involved with public schools at the building or district level, for purposes of improving school-community relations, yet, in 1954 Olsen addressed the concept of the "now emerging" school-community councils.

Olsen also submitted that these councils were taking various names: coordinating council, community council, neighborhood council, youth council, social welfare council, human relations council, community school council (or committee), advisory council, all of which were attempts to bridge the gap between school and community (Olsen, 1954).

The impetus for citizen involvement occurred as a result of President Lyndon B. Johnson's "War on Poverty" in the mid 1960's (Havighurst, 1974; NSPRA, 1977). Federal legislation such as the Manpower Development Training Act (1962), the Economic Opportunity Act (1964), the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (1965 and Amendments of 1968 and 1970), the Adult Education Act (1966, an Amendment to ESEA), the Vocational Education Act (1963 and 1968 Amendments), all or in part contained provisions for advisory council activity in public education, with a carry-over effect into the 1970's with Teacher Corps and community schools legislation also mandating advisory councils.

Forms of Citizen Participation

The question arises concerning who should participate and how--who are the citizens to be involved, what kinds of things can they do, within what structure or format should (or indeed could) participation be effected, and under what conditions?

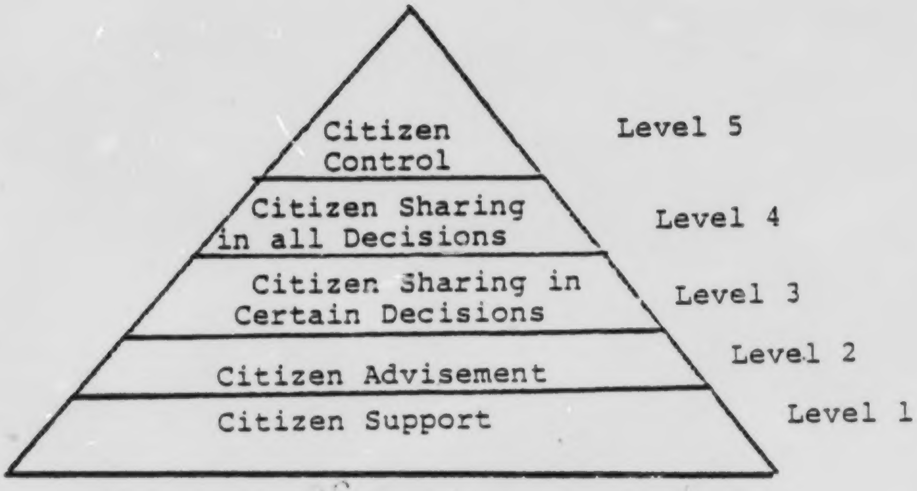
Woolard (1977) emphasized the involvement of the school's or district's relevant publics--those who would be affected by educational decisions--and included students, staff, agencies, other educational institutions, parents, and business and industry. Barton (1976) and Wirtz (1975) stressed the importance of involving unions, parents, service organizations, youth, and lay persons in the community.

Sumption and Engstrom (1966) contended that there are two types of participation: formal and informal. Their conceptualization of formal participation was "that involvement which is provided by law, custom, or mutual agreement" (p. 50), which can be further divided into organizational (P.T.A. or advisory committees) or individual (voting on bond issues or appearances at school board meetings) participation. Informal participation, embracing more substantial degrees of participation, "is by definition unstructured but, nevertheless, often quite effective in altering school plans and policies" (Sumption and Engstrom, 1966, p. 52). For examples of informal organizational participation they cite parent or community groups, pressure groups, school caucuses (usually dealing with board elections), and "family clans" (usually more powerful in rural areas). Individual informal participation might include individual complaints (or compliments), letters to the editor of local newspapers and other media, and the like.

Arnstein (1971) design a typology, which she intended to be provocative, in the form of a ladder pattern, each rung of which corresponds to the extent of citizens' power in determining the plan and/or program. The first two rungs she classified as non-participation, usually a panacea contrived as a surrogate for genuine participation. These are 1) manipulation and 2) therapy. The next three rungs she called degrees of tokenism, permitting the "have-nots" to hear and have a voice. Level 3 (informing) and level 4 (consultation) allow citizens to be heard and to express their views; yet, they still lack the clout to influence and to be heeded. Level 5 (placation) allows for advice, but not decision-making authority. Arnstein referred to this as a "higher level tokenism." The first three rungs in the ladder represent levels of citizen involvement, with increasing degrees of decision-making power. Level 6 (partnership) fosters negotiation and assumes equality in the decision-making process. In level 7 and level 8 (delegated power and citizen control, respectively), the citizens have obtained the "majority of decision-making seats, or full managerial power" (p. 73).

In this scheme, acknowledged by Arnstein to be a simplification, she hoped to illustrate that there was a hierachy of patterns of citizen participation, which was later recapitulated by Davies (1977).

Another design was the five-level pyramid designed by Kaplan and Tune (1978) which graphically depicts how levels of citizen participation vary in intensity and impact (p. 15):


Citizen Control
Level 5
Citizen Sharing in all Decisions
Level 4
Citizen Sharing in Certain Decisions
Level 3
Citizen Advisement
Level 2
Citizen Support
Level 1

Level 1: Citizen support rarely involves decision-making, but is more a "support of silence" (p. 15).

Level 2: Citizen advisement provides for input into policy, but the people have no final decision-making authority.

Level 3: Citizen sharing in certain decisions allows for limited shared responsiblity for decision-making on certain issues such as textbook selection or budget prioritizing.

Level 4: Citizen sharing in all decisions allows citizens the same power as professional educators and connotes equality in the decision-making process.

Level 5: Citizen control exists when the people have full managerial power and final authority for decision-making.

Citizens have various roles in the decision-making process within the community education framework. Examples of ways of participating were described by Sumption and Engstrom (1966). They suggested involvement in planning, in policy-making, in communication and public relations, in problem sovling, in program development and financing, and in evaluating program effectiveness. Actual citizen involvement was occuring, according to a 1973 Education U.S.A. survey (NSPRA, 1973) in building programs, adult education, vocational education, finances (taxes, bond issues, and budget), student behavior (rights, discipline, dress code and smoking), sex education, drug programs, curriculum and other instructional matters, boundaries, district organization, integration, transporation and lunch programs, federal programs (Title I of ESEA, Teacher Corps, O.E.O., Community Education), purchasing, special education use of facilities, human relations, planning, goals and objectives, evaluation, liaison functions, information dissemination, needs assessments, reaction to proposals, home visitations, recreation, and screening of paraprofessionals.

Havighurst (1974) suggested three areas of school administration that are of special concern to the community, areas in which they should become actively involved: budget, personnel and curriculum. Fantini (1975) categorized what he called the many "new faces of participation in the 1970's" (p. 22), that had been triggered by the "big bang" in comminity involvement during the 1960's:

1. Participation for public relations in which citizens have the light task of being involved by being positively informed through controlled information, thus leading the citizens to believe that the critical areas of budget, curriculum and personnel decisions are best left to the professionals who are doing their jobs well.

2. Participation for instructional and curriculum support, using volunteers and paraprofessionals, other community resources, and evening programs, to enhance the school program. Participants are involved in an adjunct capacity, seldom including direct decision-making capability.

3. Participation for crisis resolution, in which a major problem can catalyze community concern. Such involvement deals only with the resolution of an immediate situation with little carry-over effect.

4. Participation in school governance, including local boards of education as well as solicitation of the expertise and advice of the community, through various vehicles in decision-making. These vehicles, reported Fantini, may be consultative (conferring), advisory (such as advisory councils), shared (equal partnership of professionals and consumers or laymen), community control (bulk of authority is shifted to consumer or laymen), and individual or family control (in which the families or individuals utlimately select the type of education that suits them).

5. Participation which applies legal resources to educational problem solving, which requires litigation as the basis for determining parent and student rights.

6. Participation through citizen consumer lobbies for education, which can have tremendous impact on the local system. Fantini cited as examples the National

Committee for Citizens in Education and the Institute for Responsive Education as nation-wide examples. Other advocacy groups include the American Friends Service Committee and the American Civil Liberties Union.

Lyday, et al. (1977), also identified areas in which citizens could participate in the educational programs. They suggested that the people should have some responsiblity in the areas of the K-12 program, the extended-day program, volunteer and tutoring programs, delivery of human services, and community improvement, through a coordinated effort with school personnel.

With the multitude of suggestions provided throughout the literature on the various types of citizen participation it should be noted that structures or vehicles exist that facilitate community involvement. Some of these vehicles for effecting participation were noted by Fantini (see above); yet many other structures or formats exist. Warden (1977) identified and described twenty-five vehicles for citizen participation, some of which included Alinsky-type organizations, charettes, community audio and visual access, community development organizations, community resource/information centers, neighborhood associations and councils, parent involvement councils, self-help groups, and user consultation processes, among others. He also attended to citizen advisory committees and community schools, which will be dealt with more specifically in this paper.

Lyday, et al. (1977), recommended parent involvement in school programs by volunteering, by working on community task forces and in parent clubs and child-study groups. Fantini (1970) suggested parents as teacher aides, and work-study opportunities for business and industry in a career-counseling, occupational orientation type of format. This was also expressed by Barton (1976) and Wirtz (1975), who recommended community education work councils with business and industry taking an active role in job placement, career education and occupational awareness, using the community as a classroom.

At whatever level, in whatever mode, there are five conditions for participation according to von Moltke (1973):

1. Participation must be voluntary;
2. The format for participation must be non-redundant;
3. Participation must be local;
4. Participation must be as direct as possible;
5. Participation must be directed toward the action level.

Although all of the preceding forms, modes, structures and vehicles may be or have been employed in a community education program, two forms seem to predominate: 1) the use of volunteers and paraprofessionals and 2) the utilization and reliance on advisory committees.

Use of Volunteers and Paraprofessionals

As a vital resource, volunteers and paraprofessionals are often overlooked in the regular K-12 instructional program, the extended-day program, and in ancillary services. The literature suggests that volunteers and paraprofessionals can enrich a community education program that may otherwise have become stagnant due to lack of funds or lack of adaptability and provide a revitalization that could not otherwise be effected.

The use of volunteers and paraprofessionals is based on four major assumptions:

1. For change to be effective and sustained, the community must be directly involved in decision-making, programming, implementation and assessment.

2. Schools belong to the community and should provide opportunities and programs for the involvement of persons of all ages in that community.

3. The school should be a focal point for a variety of student and adult services.

4. Talented community people are available in _any_ community to assist with instructional and service programs; what is needed to leadership in recruiting, training, managing and assessing the effectiveness of those persons (Winecoff and Powell, 1976, p. 6).

To substantiate this, Bill Smith of Teacher Corps stated that "through Teacher Corps volunteers have become an integral part of the school experiences of their children" (in Lyday, et al., 1977). According to the NSPRA, volunteers have been successfully used as homeroom mothers, field trip chaperones, reading and math tutors, clerical assistants, library aides, speakers, "living historians," resource center volunteers, escort service, career information sharing for occupational awareness, senior citizens working in classroom with young children, and in orientation.

A smoothly functioning volunteer program can effect positive changes in a community school. According to Winecoff and Powell (1976), a well-designed and well-implemented volunteer and/or paraprofessional program:

1. Provides more "hands" for working with students. This is helpful in situations where instruction is individualized. The volunteers or paraprofessionals can work with small student groups, supervise playground and lunchroom activities, and relieve the teacher of clerical tasks. Additionally, volunteers with special talents and skills may be found who can share their expertise by teaching enrichment courses, often at no cost to the program.

2. Promotes the concept of community and school as partners in learning. This creates a viable linkage between the home and school which should be fostered. Getting community members to support school programs is one step, but to get them to assume responsiblity and offer their services solidifies this linkage.

3. Increases community support, fostering a sense of belonging and ownership that in turn produces favorable

feelings about the school which, in its turn, is manifested in increased chances of bond issues passing, for example. In this capacity volunteers and paraprofessionals can create a vital communications network between the community and the school. Money cannot buy the positive public relations that this can effect.

Volunteers and paraprofessionals can fill many other roles in a community school program. They can fill a coordinating function to ensure the volunteer program functions with the regular school programming; they can assist or perform as building supervisors in the extended day program; they can supervise children's day care or evening care facilities; they can function as home-school visitors; they can perform as activity supervisors for senior citizens programs. In addition, volunteers and aides make excellent resource persons in the conducting of needs assessments. They can aid in recruiting efforts, in community mobilization via action-oriented task forces, serve on advisory committees. In some cases they have organized district block leaders, have helped in identifying and recruiting efforts for adult basic education, have provided transportation using high school programs, and have been instrumental in the establishment of pre-school programs. (Winecoff and Powell, 1976; Lyday, et al., 1977; Shafer, 1972; Woolard, 1977).

Not all projects attempting the use of volunteers and paraprofessionals have succeeded, however. According to Winecoff and Powell (1976) many schools which have attempted to make full use of volunteers and paraprofessionals have experienced frustration and failure for five major reasons:

1. Lack of adequate overall planning and administrative support.
2. Lack of adequate involvement and preparation of teachers.
3. Lack of adequate training programs and specified tasks for volunteers and paraprofessionals.
4. Lack of an adequate volunteer management system.
5. Lack of adequate recruiting strategies (p. 8).

The authors recommend that, in order to combat the forenamed problems, planning should take place in program development and overall design, teacher input and training, volunteer training, management of the volunteer program and volunteer recruiting, which may be regarded as criteria for successful volunteer paraprofessional programs in community education programs.

Use of School-Community Committees and Councils

Seay and Parson (in Seay, 1974) submitted that school-community councils "put the community back in community education" (p. 171). Whether they are called school-community advisory councils, school advisory councils or committees, citizens' advisory committees, community school councils, community education advisory committees or any other variations on the theme, they still function as a vital link between the community and the organizational and administrative structure of the schools. The term school-community council will be employed for purposes of this investigation, as a generic term for this organized group which serves as a vehicle for involving the community in educational problem-solving within the community education construct.

School-community councils provide a means for consistent and continuous community involvement. It has been suggested that when educators invite citizens to work with them, the citizens can experience some of the pressures of educators, assume more responsibility, and develop a greater understanding of the school system (McKenzie, 1974). Conversely, educators can maintain close contact with the community through the council and can obtain feedback on community needs, problems and the like. When properly organized and trained, school-community councils can be one of the most effective and lasting agents within a community (Lyday, et al., 1977). This is to say that the council is a catalytic agent, not a super administrative agency (Olsen, 1954).

The rationale for developing and fostering council effectiveness may be summarized in the following table: (From McKenzie, 1974 and Winecoff, et al., 1977)

1. School age children cannot be separated from their communities;

2. A means of self-assertion by local citizens can be beneficial to the K-12 program;

3. School districts should strive to:

    A. Actively involve the people to be served in the decision-making and goal-setting processes related primarily to K-12 education as well as to the expanded concept of community education;

    B. Increase the amount of active participation of community people in the total schooling process;

    C. Develop a viable mechanism for continuation of programs, activities, innovations, and changes.

Davies (1977), however, contended that "school councils are not now, by and large, effective vehicles for citizens to affect educational policies and decisions. But, they have unrealized potential to become mechanisms for productive power-sharing and partnership between citizens and educators" (p. 6). He furthermore observed that school-community councils take two forms, either citizen-initiated or mandated.

Those councils established by mandate include those legislatively sanctioned either at the federal or state level, or those councils established by resolution or policy of the state or local boards of education. Cahn and Passett (1971) were concerned with Office of Economic Opportunity (O.E.O.) Councils and the antipoverty programs , as was LeTarte (1973); Schimmel and Fischer (1977) addressed Title I and Vocational Education advisory councils; Davies (1977) also alluded to the Title I parent advisory committees; Warden (1977) indicated that federal programs such as Right to Read, Follow Through, and ESEA Title I all have mandated parent involvement councils. Winecoff, et al. (1977) affirmed that with regard to Teacher Corps, "the heart of the community governance process is the people served, the people who make up the school community. It is, in fact, their needs, interests, and concerns that Teacher Corps is designed to serve. Only recently, however, has Teacher Corps begun to focus seriously on the community as an integral part of the decision-making mechanism--and require school-community councils as part of each project" (p. 3-4). These councils are all representative of federal government mandates.

In other instances, state statutes may contain provisions for school-community councils; South Carolina recently enacted legislation mandating a school-community council for every school. Still, in other cases, a state board of education or local school board may require school-community councils for various purposes.

The citizen-initiated councils usually generate from grass-roots interest in a particular issue. They may be independent--usually a protest or advocacy group, according to Sumption and Engstrom (1966)--or school sponsored. These councils will be examined in more depth in view of their impact on the community education process.

It should be noted that a school-community council is not a surrogate school board either in action or responsibility. Its function is entirely different, albeit sometimes threatening (NSPRA, 1973). School-community councils may be functioning at either the building level (at an individual school) or at the district level; the building or school council generally works with the community school director and/or the principal whereas the district-level council works directly with the district community education coordinator, the superintendent, and/or the school board. Minzey and LeTarte (1972) provided some general guidelines and principles of school-community councils that may also serve as a definition:

The council provides for:

1. Adequate representation;
2. An open forum for the presentation of concerns and criticisms to educators;
3. Opportunities for the exchange of ideas;
4. The establishment and support of strong community leadership;

5. Positive and cooperative efforts between and among existing agencies (public and private) resulting from discussions of community concerns and problems.

Citizen participation is at the very heart of community education, and as a vehicle for involving the community, the efficiency of the school-community council is implicit and explicit throughout the literature. A fundamental function of the school-community council is to assure two-way communication (Minzey and LeTarte, 1972; Seay, 1974). Nance (1976) viewed the council as a potential change agent. He noted that the council can function as a "feedback mechanism which will ensure that citizens will be aware of changes and can analyze situations to better be able to organize programs to effectively deal with problems before they become problems" (p. 6). Similarly, Kerensky and Melby (1975) observed:

> Each community school should have a citizens' advisory council, a council that serves to inform the school of the community's needs, desires, and expectations. In addition, the citizens' advisory council assists the professional educators by informing members of the community of problems and goals sensed or expressed from the point of view of the educators. (p. 185).

Although the councils are frequently called "advisory," this need not be their only function. Following is a synthesis of the various roles, functions, and tasks attributable to school-community councils, or possible areas of involvement. It should be noted that some are very general, others quite specific; while some have been tested, others remain experimental.

Functions of School-Community Councils:

To study problems and needs and to plan cooperatively to meet them, by:

1. encouraging informed citizen participation;
2. fact funding;
3. developing public understanding and support;
4. coordinating community activities and services; and,
5. cooperative action.

To study and act upon many issues and topics, ranging philosophy, finance, personnel, construction, transportation, desegregation, and student discipline;

To define the educational needs of the local community;

To aid in developing long-range plans;

To assist in the establishment of educational goals and objectives;

To aid in the development of educational policy;

To assume that the special needs of pupils and the community are being served;

To participate in committees established to influence the expenditure of funds under local school district control, and to interpret local financial needs to the Board;

To participate in the interviewing, selection, and termination of local school personnel;

To develop action plans for program implementation;

To participate in the securing of necessary protection for the total school environment;

To establish a tabulation of community resources;

To assume that teaching resources and materials are consistent with school and community needs;

To develop concerted community action on a specific school community problem;

To provide a means of democratic action in meeting local needs through existing agencies, organizations, and institutions;

To keep the director/principal/superintendent/school board informed;

To recommend new programs based upon community need;

To act as mediator in the resolution of local school-community conflict;

To assure as far as possible that the physical plant, equipment, and the like, adequately meet educational needs;

To achieve an advocacy/formal grievance/ombudsman role;

To aid in solving school-community problems;

To maintain relations with sources of assistance on the local, state, or national levels;

To identify through the operation of the advisory council potential leaders and to develop their qualities of leadership through community involvement;

To stimulate organizations and individuals on the council to conduct periodic self-evaluation of its efforts and operation;

To assist in the evaluation of the work of the school;

To assist in program monitoring;

To study the local school curriculum (day and evening) and to work for the changes necessary;

To participate in establishing disciplinary procedures governing students, including the involvement of students in the process.

(Olsen, 1954; Sumption and Engstrom, 1966; NSPRA, 1973; Cox, 1974; May, 1974; Seay, 1974; Winecoff, 1974; Robbins and Whitaker, 1975; Nance, 1976; Warden, 1977).

The NSPRA, however, reported that at their best, district-wide committees are truly advisory. Other findings of their study included:

Their most useful function is to recommend policy for school board consideration;

The school building council is spreading fast and now dominates the scene of layman's participation in school activities. School building councils are most often operating mechanisms to assist the administration with specific tasks. Their contribution to policy or concept is usually minimal (NSPRA, 1973, p. 7).

There are limiting parameters, problems, and pitfalls with regard to school-community councils. "Many community councils are misused and, in fact, misnamed . . . . composed of a group of people chosen arbitrarily with little forethought as to total group composition or purpose" (Minzey and LeTarte, 1972, p. 74). Hazards of exploitation emerge, agreed the NSPRA (1973), when the council is used as a "rubber stamp" to approve board actions, as a shock absorber in the event of community dissatisfaction with the administration or vice-versa, as a front-man promoter of programs, or as a bailer-out when the administration acts counter to community will. The school-community council can sometimes cause more problems than it attempts to solve. And, if the council recommendations are regularly rejected by the local school board, morale problems may ensue. This can have a definite carry-over effect into the community (Holliday and Goble, in Pennsylvania Education, 1972). Winecoff (1974) warned of domination by special interest groups and recommended avoidance of these. Lyday, et al.,(1977) listed the limiting parameters to council functioning:

1. Local, state, and federal laws and guidelines;

2. School board policies and procedures;

3. School and agency administrative procedures and areas of responsibility;

4. Special interest groups;

5. Empire-building agencies or groups;

6. Union or association policies and guidelines.

Despite the barriers, there are many benefits to be gained through the judicious employment of school-community councils. "The emphasis now being placed on community education encourages new relationships among schools, home, and community. The school-community council provides the vehicle for continuous dialogue and action" (Winecoff, et al., 1977). Other desirable outcomes include two-way communication, parent involvement, democratized administration, and getting the job done at a minimal expense to the taxpayer (NSPRA, 1973). Possible contributions of a school-community council could include:

1. Crystallizing the recognition of a problem within the school system;

2. Possibly identifying some previously unrecognized problem areas;

3. Providing the school board with ideas and suggestions;

4. A positive carry-over effect into the community by council members.

A 1976 Gallup Poll reported that 10% of those persons were unwilling to serve on a citizens' advisory council; of the remaining 90% it was expressed that citizen deliberation could affect such policy areas as discipline, student-teacher relations, career education, dropout prevention, programs for the handicapped, educational finance, curriculum, and citizenship (Gallup, 1976). Woolard (1977), a long-time advocate of citizen involvement and a practitioner who relies on school-community councils extensively, summarized by saying that school-community councils, properly used, inject "a quality of dynamics, energy, renewal, and challenge" into the curriculum and overall educational program (p. 33).

But what is a "properly-used," or "judiciously employed" school-community council? What criteria determine the success of a council or serve to distinguish an effective council from a dysfunctional one? Throughout the literature a recurrent theme is representation. Accurate representation of the community on the council, racially, ethnically, and socio-economically, is crucial (Kerensky and Melby, 1975; Minzey and LeTarte, 1972; Seay, 1974). The NSPRA, on the other hand, regards as "the kiss of death" the creation of a council without a clear mandate (1977). Minzey and LeTarte (1972) acknowledged that a good community council should be "issue-based rather than program oriented" (p. 74). Warden (1977) contributed critical factors that determine council success. These included: a clear understanding of purpose on the part of council members, open communication, a specific focus rather than general, in-service training opportunities for council members, and good human relations. Woolard (1977) stressed the importance of a team approach and providing some basic guidelines, based on his experiences, for working with councils. The National Community Education Advisory Council, in its Citizen Participation Handbook (1977) contended that program success was based upon the need expressed by local people. They cited eight characteristics of successful school-community council implementation, based upon data gathered in the four case studies:

1. A "problem-solving" orientation of the local school system (system had begun attacking problems before funding became available);

2. Project design was not prepackaged, but was adapted to meet local needs;

3. Materials were adapted to meet local needs;

4. Planning was continuous and ongoing;

5. Training was the result of project needs and was ongoing;

6. Technical assistance was continuous;

7. Strong support by top-level administration;

8. Mutual interaction between council and administration was crucial.

For enthusiasm to be maintained, school-community councils must have specific tasks to focus their energies upon, according to Van Ness (1974). These tasks should be action-oriented with obtainable results. He also reiterated that the councils should operate as nerve centers for the efforts of their constituents--the community. Rules for organization and planning are critical, but he admonished leaders to remain flexible. Van Ness further encouraged the fostering of an environment of mutual trust and concernto assure council effectiveness. Blumenberg and Marmion (1972) submitted that the council was considered healthy if:

1. Increasing numbers of people wanted to serve;

2. Meetings were well-attended by members and visitors;

3. The council is task-oriented and progresses toward its goals;

4. The principal (or superintendent or school board) feedback to the council his/her reasons for accepting or rejecting its advice;

5. Evaluation is an ongoing process.

Lyday, et al. (1977) cited seven criteria that characterized the more successful school-community councils;

1. Seven to fifteen members;

2. The development of a membership election process which ensures wide representation;

3. Regular monthly meetings (more if needed);

4. Adoption of a set of guidelines governing action;

5. Small action task forces involving others in the community;

6. Established goals and objectives based upon needs assessments;

7. The adoption of monitoring process for progress.

Community involvement is at the heart of the community education philosophy and it becomes evident in the literature that school-community councils have the potential for effecting community involvement within the parameters of community education. It should be emphasized that citizen participation and community councils are not synonymous terms. To quote Fried (1978) "We haven't 'got' citizen participation in education merely because we've got a council or committee. How that group operates, what its mandate is, who is represented, when and where it can exercise its share of decision-making power--all are key questions in determining the authenticity of any group as a vehicle for citizen participation" (p. 10).

VALUE OF CITIZEN PARTICIPATION

Barriers and obstacles to the concept of citizen participation are evident in the literature, the most formidable of which, according to the Education U.S.A. survey, were the lack of administrative support of the concept and leadership (NSPRA, 1977). Other barriers, reported respondents to the survey, included:

1. Lack of time due to job commitments;
2. Apathy, or other attitudinal barriers;
3. Trying to convince people that citizen participation is worthwhile, that their time is well-spent and that citizen participation does make a difference;
4. Maintaining continued interest;
5. Large distance to travel.

Kaplan and Tune (1978) predicated the lack of citizen participation on the following factors:

1. Frequently professionals do not regard citizens (other than board members) as potential problem solvers;
2. Participants are sometimes "relegated merely to classroom resources or school volunteer roles" (p. 16);
3. Inadequate staff resources;
4. Staff indifference to citizen concerns;
5. Inadequate planning time and financial resources.

Citizen participation is difficult to champion, contended Cahn and Passett (1971):

> Too often, when one begins to see signs of success and dares to boast publicly, a scandal breaks, or an attack is leveled on the group in question, or the special magic that somehow bound the group together has disappeared and the whole effort disintegrates (p. 15).

The literature abounds with accounts of how difficult it is to effect and facilitate an ongoing, thriving, productive citizen participation process. Fantini (1970) provided some insight into the seeming lack of parent involvement in the urban schools:

1. Professionalism of the educator;

2. Low level of parent education relative to teachers (particularly in ghetto areas, where parents are not prone to challenge assigned authority);

3. Growing size and inpersonality of large urban district;

4. "Professional secrecy," not keeping the parents informed, much less involved.

Cahn and Passett (1971) submitted that "citizen participation is fraught with dangers and risks. Even at best, and when most fully realized, it is precious, fragile, vulnerable, and easily destroyed or perverted. It is threatening, likely to invite retaliation and likely to generate highly explosive and controversial situations" (p. 10).

Taking these risks into account, however, there are positive benefits that community education can gleam from citizen participation at all levels of the process. One advantage is that people can see how they can improve their lives beyond what they are presently doing (McKenzie, 1974). Another advantage is the alleviation of the "doing for" syndrome. In as much as "doing for" people is dysfunctional, citizen involvement may aid in a person's developing the skills necessary for handling his/her own problems.

From a practical standpoint, research, according to Kraus and Northwich (1975), has indicated that increased community participation in the community education program betters the chances for passage of bond issues. The overall quality of the community education program may be enhanced through active participation. Rosenthal and Jacobsen reported changes in teacher perceptions of the ability of children whose parents were actively involved in the schools. Advocates believe that once citizens are actively involved in schools the system will become more responsive to their needs and interests, culminating in more effective education for all.

The values inherent in citizen participation were synthesized and expressed by Cahn and Cahn (in Cahn and Passett 1971). They proposed that citizen participation can be:

1. A means of mobilizing unutilized resources (a source of productivity and labor not otherwised tapped);

2. A source of knowledge (both corrective and creative--a means of securing feedback regarding policy and programs, and also a source of new, inventive, and innovative approaches);

3. An end in itself (an affirmation of democracy and the elimination of alienation and withdrawal, of

destructiveness, hostility, and lack of faith in relying on the people (p. 16).

In order for it to succeed, however, citizen participation within the community education context requires continual support to be effective, as well as a commitment from professionals and citizens who will give it adequate time and priority (Kaplan and Tune, 1978). It must also be institutionalized as a continuing process, allowing for constant feedback and ongoing revision of policy (Gittell, 1974). Consistent staff support and technical assistance are crucial for success, emphasized Deshler and Erlich (1972). "Thus community involvement . . . does not represent a dichotomy, but a continuum" (p. 175). The entire process of citizen participation in the community education process is based upon mutual trust and integrity. Citizen participation and community education are not static concepts; they are organic, and require nurturing to keep them alive and thriving (Cook, 1977).

RESEARCH

A considerable amount of research has been conducted on the various aspects and dimensions of citizen participation and/or community involvement. On community control and decentralization much has been written; however, inasmuch as these topics relate to the concept of community education, there has been little research undertaken and reported. Most of these investigations have consisted of doctoral dissertations and the large majority of them relate to community councils. Cwik, et al. (1975), reported that more doctoral studies have been written on community advisory councils than on any other subject in community education (p. 11).

Naslund and Brown in 1958 undertook a review of the existing research and identified studies in six areas relating to the school and community:

1) Decision-making and power structure in the community;

2) Avenues of control of public education by localities;

3) School-community interaction;

4) Attitudes toward schools;

5) Factors associated with attitudes toward schools;

6) Publicity practices and public relations.

A study was conducted in 1974-1975 by the Institute for Responsive Education for proposes of determining the nationwide status of citizen participation in educational decision-making. The twelve major findings of this study indicating a trend toward more citizen involvement included:

1. Administrative decentralization of some kind had been adopted in fourteen of the twenty-five cities surveyed, and in 279 of the responding school districts;

2. School councils for all or some of the schools in the districts had been established in eleven of the twenty-five citiies.

3. Advisory groups are more common than policy groups--of the 574 groups identified in the survey, only 88 reported to have a direct role in the decision-making process;

4. For groups with formal relationships to school systems, parent initiative was reported least often as the cause of their establishment;

5. Members of the groups were elected more frequently in cities than in smaller districts;

6. Most groups with a formal relationship to a school system were of recent origin. Over 50% were established after 1979; most groups were small, numbering between ten and twenty members; parents of children in schools constituted the majority of the memberships of all groups;

7. A substantial majority of the participants in citizens organizations attempting to influence school policy were women;

8. There was strong agreement that there was too little citizen participation in educational decision-making;

9. Apathy was the most commonly cited explanation for "too little participation";

10. There was strong support for the prediction that citizen participation would increase in the next two years;

11. Most people beleived that increased citizen participation will have positive results;

12. There was strong, general support for the concept of citizen participation. (Stanwick, 1975)

Other patterns or modes of participation are described and/or analyzed in various studies. Liechty (1977) investigated patterns of citizen participation in education and discovered four modes of participation and five different types of participators. The four modes he identified were:

1. Parochial--17%; these activities appear to be child-oriented, non-conflictive, and require much participant initiative;

2. Cooperative--23%; these activities tended to be group-oriented, non-conflictive, and require some initiative;

3. Electoral--48%; these activities appear to be voter-oriented, conflictive, and require little initiative;

4. Dynamic--12%; these activities appeared to be

school and community oriented, conflictive, and require much initiative.

The give types of participation, according to Liechty, are:

1. Activists--accounted for 51% of the total activity. They ranked highest in representing while participators, showed the highest educational level, greatest income level, and scored highest on cooperative, electoral, and dynamic mode activities;

2. Parents--accounted for 30% of total activity. They consisted mostly of women with children in school, were "parent status" types, showed highest levels of educational awareness, participation orientation, and on parochial mode activities.

3. Citizens--accounted for 10% of total activity, mostly males and blacks;

4. Voters--accounted for 9% of total activity, consisting mostly of persons living longest in the district;

5. Inactive--showed no educational activity, consisted mostly of elderly, ranked high on traditional attitudes.

Stromquist (1975) identified conditions of participation, particularly in educational planning. As a result of her investigation she concluded that:

1. Participation in planning appeals to highly educated people, especially if they are in an education-related field;

2. A willingness to give one's free time to volunteer activities, membership in educational groups, and a belief in an active role for parents in the school decision-making process were found to have considerable effects on participation;

3. A high level of heterogeneity in planning teams was found to have a strong and consistent effect on the intensity and quality of participation among students, parents, and teachers;

4. Much association was found between an individual's a) perceiving school authorities as being receptive to planning and b) accepting the role of planner.

5. Educational participation in planning can be developed since it is (generally) preceeded by participation in auxilliary and/or supportive activities at either the classroom or building level.

Miller (1975) proposed to determine how schools function as a determiner and reflector of a society on a community. In his examination of a black community, he discovered that:

1. The structure of school involvement is related to a) organizational alternatives (objectives met by schools people and b) postures of community people;

2. Four types of involvement modes became evident--a) authoritarian (school officials have ultimate control),

b) interactive/authoritarian (school officials dominate), c) interactive/partisan (community dominates), d) partisan (community assumes the active role, school officials the passive role);

3. Interactive modes have the highest degree of stability; authoritarian mode is least desirable from the standpoint of stability; yet, the partisan mode has the most potential;

4. Establishment Theory tends to explain school participation in the black community--school participants tend to be high-status people who have positive attitudes toward the school. Activity, position, and attitudes all had positive relationships to one another.

In a 1969 study of thirteen cities, the Urban Coalition attended to discover which citizens participate in school affairs, whom they represent, the forum used, issues considered, tactics used by participants, sanctions available to them, success of the program, and its strengths and weaknesses as perceived by interested parties. The Coalition, as a result of its study, recommended that existing linkages be strengthened and that poor and minority groups be included. They further acknowledged that leadership in the area of relevant involvement in school affairs were emerging within the schools and the communities. The expertise was there to solve many community problems (Cunningham and Nystrand, 1969).

Another area of citizen participation that has been examined is that of the effects of active participation, whether on alienation, voter response, or school performance.

Lopate (1969) reported that studies show that parents' involvement in schools enhance a child's development and academic achievement. This section of the Coleman Report also maintained that a minority child's heightened self-worth and sense of control over his own destiny would be encouraged by his awareness of the participation of parents and community groups, who can effect changes in educational policy and programs.

Doggett (1971) hypothesized that academic achievement test scores for eighth-grade students were higher in 1970 than in 1967 because of exposure to the new community school program. He discovered that one of the major factors distinguishing the former traditional program from the community school program, that appeared to account for the differential achievements of the two eighth-grade groups, was the provision for significant parental involvement in the school program.

Washington (1974) also addressed the relationship between school performance and parent participation. In his study of a community-control and a non-community control school, he divided the parents and their children into four groups: 1) teaching parents, 2) governing parents, 3) minimally involved parents and 4) nonparticipatory parents. His findings included:

1. There was no difference among the four groups on achievement measures;

2. Children of governance parents believed them to be more influential in the school. These students had the highest absentee rate;

3. Children of teaching parents tended to feel less punished;

4. Children in the two schools did not differ in locus of control orientation;

5. Children in the community-control school saw their parents as more influential than those in the non-community-control school;

6. Students in the non-community-control school had higher scores on arithmetic and spelling and had fewer days absent;

7. Non-participating parents tended to be more authoritarian in their child-rearing attitudes;

8. There was no difference among parents with regard to feelings of powerlessness.

Another effect of citizen participation was investigated by Curran (1976), who analyzed the alienation of parents, associational groups and lay citizens in a community school and a non-community school. She found that a significant difference existed between the levels of general alienation of community and non-community school citizens. It was also found that significance existed in alienation between these two groups and with age and sex. In almost all situations alienation was higher in non-community than community school citizens. The strongest differences were in school alienation, school powerlessness, and school social isolation; again residents of a community school attendance area tended to be less alienated than their counterparts in a non-community school attendance area. She concluded that the community school appears to be a vehicle which promotes community participation and increases the organizational involvement of the school's attendance area citizens.

Still another effect of citizen involvement is evident in voter response. Jones (1972) undertook a study to determine whether significant relationships in voting patterns existed between selected school districts which have implemented the community school concept and selected traditional school districts, and to determine, through assessment of the community school districts, whether the amount of community support (voting record) relates to the dimension and scope of the program. The most significant finding was the community school districts have maintained their level of voter support over a five-year period, while that in traditional school districts has decreased substantially. Other findings included:

1. Traditional school districts have not been able to maintain their level of voter support in school millage elections;

2. Suburban community school districts seem to have a more comprehensive community education program than rural community school districts.

Jones speculated that perhaps the emphasis placed on community involvement is a fundamental component of the community education process and was the crucial variable affecting voter patterns.

A significant dimension of citizen participation is the involvement in educational decision-making. Lapinsky (1973) undertook an analysis of the power structure and the decision-making process at the local level. He discovered that conflict arises when movement for change originates outside a community. The power structure and the decision making processes of the school, the community and the large society are crucial to the successful operation of a school district, and are not mutually exclusive. He concluded that the former narrow geopolitical concept escribed to in earlier studies of community power and decision-making can be rejected based upon his findings.

Davis, in her 1974 study, attempted to describe the transition from Gemeinschaft (the community-based society) to Gesellschaft (the centralized/controlled society) and the reversal to citizen participation in the schools. She contended that the pivotal point in citizen participation occurred in 1870's as a result of the Industrial Revolution.

The current trend is to revert to the Gemeinschaft, or community-controlled culture, to restore the power of individual communities. She proposed that advisory councils were one vehicle to effect this reversal. She discovered, however, as a result of a survey of advisory council members in a large midwestern city, that councils were 1) able to make effective changes in the schools only in the area of custodial services to children, 2) having little effect on school decisions, and 3) not infiltrated by political groups. She also found that businesses and churches were equally, if not more, interested in the schools than were social agencies. She proposed a solution to the problem of power sharing in the form of a matrix model for decentralization and community participation in the schools.

In a case study on community representation in educational decision-making, Holmes (1972) attempted to determine the evolution, representation, role, and effect of school-community advisory councils. He concluded that the evolution was the result of several conditions, such as rapid area and population growth, urban unrest between the 1950's and 1960's, federal and state education legislation, and the initial formation of a council in one black school. With regard to representation, Holmes contended that representation and participation could be effected through school-community advisory councils. He observed that the councils could play a significant role in the educational decision-making process and that this was an expanding and evolving role. Finally, in reference to effect, he concluded that in the two complexes studied, the adoption of a board policy mandating school-community advisory councils had no effect on the recruitment and selection of representative council members. The rule neither hindered nor facilitated the representative selection process.

It becomes evident through the literature and research that community councils are significant vehicles by which citizen participation may be fostered. Hull, in his 1949 study, found lay committees in communities of all sizes in twenty-one states. The purpose of his investigation was to locate and investigate lay committees which were working with professional staffs and school boards and to determine what the current practice was in these organization. Hull discovered that 70% of the identified councils were organized between 1946 and 1948; 11% were over ten years old; the oldest was established in 1919 (Berkeley, California), and no council activity was reported between 1925 and 1935. He found that the term "educational advisory committee" was used more commonly. Community-wide representation has been achieved by 72% of all the councils. He also found that these committees had value in short- and long-range planning and that the most prominent function was that of advisory, followed by information, and finally, action. The superintendents, school boards, and citizens in the communities where advisory committees are used like them and supported their use. Finally, it was discovered that since advisory committees make use of existing community organizations, they strengthen and support the existing institutions in the community in a constructive manner rather than detracting from them or weakening them.

In another study, this time in 1968 by the American Association of School Administrators, fifty-two continuing, district-wide citizens' advisory committees were identified by name, year organized, number of members, selection process (members), funding, operational methods, and function.

Martin (1974) examined the role of councils and their relationship to shared decision-making in the institution of mandated school-community advisory councils in Los Angeles Unified School District. While the study restated that advisory councils were established as a vehicle to promote active involvement of the community in the decision-making process, it was revealed that the vehicle was very slow in meeting this goal.

Woons' study of 1972 was intended to determine the functions and characteristics of community school councils and to identify some issues pertaining to the establishment of these councils, to culminate in the establishment of guidelines for adoption and implementation of councils. His recommendations included:

1. Councils should consist of a broad representative community membership, between fifteen and twenty members;

2. The terms of members should expire, with no more than one-third of the council being replaced at one time;

3. All councils should adopt by-laws, or have a written agreement with the board of education. Council functions and characteristics should be determined by the needs of the community, and should be clearly outlined in the by-laws;

4. Council meetings should be held on a regular basis during the school year only. Written agendas should be mailed to each member before each meeting;

5. Councils should reach decisions either by vote, or by consensus opinion. The method should be determined when the council is formed;

6. Districts should consider a district-wide councils when the community education program is in its formative stages. Building-level councils may be established as the program is developed and refined;

7. School employees should not outnumber lay citizens on the council. School administrators should not have voting privileges;

8. All council activities should be consistent with current board of education policy.

Another study on the structure and organization of successful councils was done by Pumphrey (1971). He found that advisory councils can be effective in promoting parent participation if such groups 1) are voluntary,

2) are allowed to determine its organization, 3) have elected officers, 4) are able to decide areas of discussion and activities. The councils he studies in Los Angeles had participated in solving problems related to public safety, vandalism, campus security, retention of good teachers, homework policies, report cards, curriculum, book selection, allocation of funds, pupil discipline, and volunteer programs.

A similar study, also in Los Angeles, dealt with organizational structure and operational patterns of councils. Tisdale (1971), however, discovered that principals gave various reasons for not having school-community advisory groups:

1. Principals need guidance in forming school-community advisory groups;
2. The formation of advisory groups was too time-consuming;
3. Lack of community leadership;
4. Problems created by requirements for evening meetings;
5. Insufficient support from staff;
6. Principals were newly assigned to a particular school.

The findings of this study consisted more of administrative deterrents than with organization and operation of councils due to the fact that principals alone were providing data for the study.

The function and purposes of community councils was the topic of several investigations. Baum (1975) examined Region Five of the Detroit Public Schools, surveying administrative staff, teachers, lay persons, and council members. He concluded that:

1. All respondents agreed that each level of schools should have a local school advisory board;

2. There was agreement that parents, teachers, and administrators should be included in each Local School Advisory Board (LSAB);

3. Parents respondents wanted their LSAB to have powers similar to regional boards;

4. Teachers and administrators proved protective of their positions and contractual agreements with the Central Board;

5. Administrators were apprehensive about local interference in supervision of staff; yet they agreed to LSAB approval to fill administrative positions;

6. Only parents and administrators agreed that their LSAB's were functioning well.

Buechler (1974) analyzed the function of community councils in Region One in Detroit. He found that:

1. The community council structure had improved the amount of community involvement with the school;

2. Present community council was making progress;

3. The present plan had not resulted in overall improvement in the operation of the school;

4. There was congruence between responses given by council members on the survey and in an interview one year later;

5. Administrators and council members agreed on the function of the councils;

6. Council members agred that the council had made improvements in the areas of 1) relationships between staff and community, 2) community involvement, 3) communication, 4) decision-making;

7. Some council members did not agree that the council had made improvements, but indicated that their schools had problems in a) lack of community participation, b) stress in school-community relations, c) control of the council by a small, special-interest group.

Corbett (1975) proposed to identify purposes and activities of advisory councils in selected community schools. He found that the groups surveyed seemed to place the greatest value on purposes relating to a council's functioning as a facilitator of communication rather than on purposes relating to a council's becoming actively involved in school operations.

Two major implications were offered. First, with regard to purposes, it would seem advisable to suggest that in the initial stages the focus be placed primarily on those purposes that relate to the facilitation of communication. Second, in regard to activities, it would seem advisable to suggest that the initial focus be placed primarily on those activities that would improve the relations between the school and the community. Also, focus should be placed on providing more options for maximum learning experiences for pupils and community members based upon a school-community needs assessment survey.

The Institute for Responsive Education investigation of 1977 had two purposes; 1) to study and improve school advisory councils and community education advisory councils (the C.S. Mott Foundation) and 2) to undertake a selective and impressionistic survey of the status of citizen participation in educational decision-making (National Institute of Education). With regard to community councils, some interesting observations were made. With a few notable exceptions, both documented and impressionistic evidence indicated that most principals try to exercise substantial control over the council's agenda (Davies, 1977, p. 52). It was also observed that many mandated councils have observed the citizen-initiated groups which had had an impact on school policies during the late 1960's and early 1970's. The I.R.E. hypothesized that the creation of mandated councils has, in many cities, "produced a net loss of power for the urban poor and the demise or weakening of voluntary citizen groups concerned about school issues" (p. 73). Several exemplary projects are attended to and/or described, one of which if Project SNAP (Stimulating the Neighborhood Action Process), in which funding to councils by the C.S. Mott Foundation is producing significant results in approximately 200 councils in several U.S. cities.

Several studies have been undertaken dealing with evaluation of council effectiveness. The Education -USA survey of 1973 indicated that very few communities surveyed did not have or had not had a citizen's committee. Their data indicated that the most successful committee for a community at the district level is one that adheres to concepts, principles, and policy recommendations. Its efficiency is lessened and problems emerge when the committee gets involved in the details of running a school (NSPRA, 1973).

Cox's 1975 evaluation of Florida's community education program reported that as a result of implementing community education, there was no significant increase in the participation of community residents in an advisory capacity as indicated by the organization of councils, advisory committees, and task forces.

Cook's descriptive study of 1977 showed that in South Carolina there were seven district-level and five building-level advisory councils; the data indicated that the areas of greatest involvement were publicity and public relations; advisory councils were generally viewed as not very effective.

Tirozzi (1973) attempted to assess the expectations of school administrators with regard to advisory councils in Flint. The sample population consisted of three groups: Principals, community school directors, and selected central office staff. The findings are grouped with several areas:

1. Perceived functions of school-community advisory councils:

   A. Councils should have their greatest involvement in those functions relating to: neighborhood oriented problems, human relations projects, community use of school facilities, fund raising activities, and planning activities for adults and children.

   B. Councils should have the least amount of involvement in those functions relating to: planning the school budget, in-service training of staff, selection of staff, and evaluation of staff.

2. Perceived effect of school-community advisory councils on school-community relations:

   A. The formation of councils will result in increased communication and understanding between the schools and the community, the community developing a more positive attitude toward the administrative staff and the board of education, and administrators and teachers becoming more aware of community problems.

   B. The formation of councils will not result in in the community having less confidence in the schools' educational program and a less positive attitude toward teachers and administrators.

3. Perceived effect of school-community advisory councils on educational decision-making:

   A. The formation of councils will result in the board of education becoming more responsive to the community, and the community and teaching staff having greater involvement in educational decision-making.

B. The formation of councils will not result in a decreased in the authority of principals and central office administrators in making educational decisions.

4. Perceived effect of school-community advisory councils on administrative effectiveness:

A. Councils have the potential to improve the ability of community school directors and central office administrators in carrying out their respective duties and responsiblities, and are necessary for the effective administration of schools in the district.

B. Councils will not hinder the board of education in developing school policies and will not impair the effectiveness of principals in administering their school program.

5. Perceived effect of school-community advisory councils on improving the educational program:

A. The formation of council will result in an improvement in the schools' total educational program.

6. Perceived value and importance of school-community advisory councils:

A. Councils will prove to be valuable and important components of the school district.

7. Major advantages and disadvantages of school-community advisory councils.

A. The major advantages of school-community advisory councils will be: more communication between the schools and the community, the community having a better understanding of the schools' program improved home-school relationships, and the school becoming more responsible to community needs.

B. The major disadvantages of school-community advisory councils will be: the councils developing into "power groups" and ultimately becoming vehicles for community control of schools, the councils not being truly representative of the communities they serve, and being dominated by self-interest groups desirous of "doing their onw thing," and the difficulty involved in interpreting and maintaining the advisory role of councils.

A similar topic was explored by Caldwell (1974), in Arizona. He found the greatest discrepancy to be in responses of principals and community school directors, followed by community school directors and superintendents. There was significant congruence in superintendents' and principals' responses.

When comparing perceptions of the actual functioning of these councils with the ideal potential for functioning, all groups indicated that there is a great need for improving current practices. If all groups studied combined their efforts by working cooperatively with the school community advisory councils, the possibility of increasing the effectiveness of these councils would be tremendous. It is recommended that the Southwest Regional Center for Community Education Development provide the intervention necessary to promote the conditions for future cooperation and understanding by increasing their in-service training experiences.

Martin (1974) investigated the role and effectiveness of councils as perceived by principals and advisory council chairman. He found there to be significant differences in the perceptions of the principals and the council chairmen regarding the role of the council. The areas which differed significantly included the issues of the council's role in determining school attendance boundaries and procedures to be followed when principals' and council chairmen's recommendations were not in accord.

In a study to determine what kinds of principals were associated with effective advisory councils, Marmion (1974) found that principals were not in agreement as to what the their role in relation to the community should be. Second, most principals were largely interested in maintaining their existing career positions, but they did not perceive that an effective council was necessary to a continuation of their status as principals. Finally, principals had widely divergent perceptions of the district as an organization. Of perhaps greatest significance to this study, most principals did not believe there was pressing organizational or personal need for them to establish a district-mandated advisory council at each school. Principals did not include effective advisory council activity in their definitions of personal success.

Garren's study (1975) on principal's perceptions of advisory council priorities found that the organizational success of a school-community advisory council was found to be dependent on the principal's perception of these priorities through interaction with councils. The results showed that principals were accurately perceiving educational priorities of councils, and that community involvement had little influence on priority differences on the principal's ability to perceive priorities.

Jenkins (1974) proposed to examine the principal-advisory council relationship, the emergent problems of authority, and how the principals deal with these problems.

With regard to the first research concern, principals were found to conceptualize their role as the legitimate decision-maker in their schools--as defined legally by the District administration and as legitimated rationally by professional norms of training, experience, and expertise. In addition, principals were found to view the role of the advisory councils as involved with indicating community opinion and providing support for the principal, faculty, and school. Their role is not involved with making decisions.

Pertaining to the second research concern, principals were found to recognize that council members often hold a community or political perspective on decentralization and community participation and thus may not concur with the principals' views. As a result, councils may provide a challenge to the authority of the principal. As the principals' careers within the District can be affected by the presence of conflict with advisory councils, principals are in the tenuous position of having to satisfy council members so that the councils' involvement in decision-making is meaningful. By doing so, the principals attempt to maintain harmonious relations with council members and avoid conflict.

With regard to the third research concern, a "control strategies" model was adopted in order to analyze and describe the strategies found to be used by principals in their attempts to deal with this situation. This model primarily makes use of Goffman's dramaturgical framework of impression-management; thus, in this research, principals were viewed as actors, performing in front of their audiences--their advisory councils. The principals were found to use various control strategies in preparation for and during their performances in order to manage the council members' impressions that: 1) the principals are the legitimate decision-makers and 2) the councils are meaningfully involved in decision-making. The principals' utilization of these control strategies are described contextually, in three case studies, and comparatively, in an overview of all principal-council relations in the sample.

Shoop (1974) investigated the dimension of control from the internal or external standpoint, as a predictor of council participation. An analysis of the data showed that persons who serve on community advisory councils tended to be significantly more social action-taking than the average member of the community. Members of community advisory councils tended to have stronger feelings of personal control and to have a greater knowledge of the events that happen to them than would a randomly selected member of the community. The person who is most likely to serve on a community advisory council is likely to believe that he is capable of actively determining his destiny. He is likely to believe that there is a causal relationship between his own behavior and change. Further analysis indicated that black members of a community tended to have a much stronger feeling of internal control than did white members of a community. Black members of a community possessed a higher belief in themselves as determiners of their own fates than do white members.

Brickman (1974) undertook an examination of group perceptions of council participation in the decision-making process. He sought differences and similarities in the value and progress perceptions to teachers, administrators, classified personnel, council members, and the PTA. He concluded that those factors which might influence the perceptions of school-based groups as to the value and progress of council participation in decision-making appear to be: 1) the nature of their role in the educational program; 2) actual experience with the council in terms of decision making; 3) their link in the communications structure; 4) the length of time of involvement with the council and 5) the actual resources available in terms of decision making.

An examination of leader behavior of the community education director in a council setting, with emphasis on the differences between perceptions of the director and the council members was conducted by Gregg (1975), who examined two aspects of leader behavior--Initiating Structure and Consideration. The conclusions for this study indicated that within the advisory council setting, directors and council members would prefer the director use more behavior indicative of both Initiating Structure and Consideration than what the director presently uses. There was an even greater preference for leader behavior indicative of Consideration than for leader behavior indicative of Initiating Structure.

Linscomb (1971) and McKenzie (1971) were both concerned with the determination criteria of successful community advisory councils. McKenzie, on the basis of the success determinents, developed a model council, the elements of which are:

1. A degree of formality which included regular monthly meetings and recorded minutes;

2. A program that was determined by the citizens rather than school district personnel;

3. A close and friendly relationship between staff member and citizen members of the council;

4. A close relationship between the principal and the council.

Linscomb identified seven determinants of a successful council in an innter-city area, including:

1. Councils are used as the vehicle for participation in school affairs;

2. School staff members participate on councils with community members;

3. In-service training is necessary to encourage participation by staff members; and to insure effective participation by community members;

4. Community leadership was developed by training by the successful accomplishments of the councils;

5. Council leadership and membership came from existing PTA;

6. School principals influenced advisory council's decisions and were the primary resource persons to the councils;

7. Councils participated in planning the compensatory education programs in the schools and in initiating other programs to help solve school community problems.

Several significant case studies also emerged during the course of the research review. The more recent of these, sponsored by the National Community Education Advisory Council (1977) dealt with four situations in various parts of the country and in various types of communities--urban, suburban, "rurban," and rural. It was designed as a handbook of suggestions for expanding citizen participation in community education program, based on theory, research, practice, and evaluation of effectiveness.

Novak (1975), in his study of a North Florida city, examined parent representativeness and factors affecting advisory council participation. He discovered that whites and females participated more, and most participants were from the lower-upper social class; it was found that lower socio-economic group parents were not on a majority of the councils, and were proportionally under represented on those councils in which they were present. He also discovered that the Florida legislative mandate requiring school advisory councils to be "broadly representative of the community viewed by the school" was interpreted in many different ways by school administrators and council chairpersons.

Beamish (1974) attempted to determine the extent to which one school's community advisory counci succeeded in creating and maintaining a communication device with its community. The adult members of the council, he discovered, maintained a high level of interest and attendance that was not matched by student membership. Council resolutions and recommendations were almost always passed by a unanimous vote of members present but were of such a nature as to have little effect on the instructional program of the school. A friendly and cooperative relationship existed between the council and the principal. The council members viewed themselves as elected representatives of not only their constituent groups but of the school community as a total entity, yet did accurately reflect the feeling of their constituent groups in council deliberations.

Communication techniques varied among council groups, with the most effective communication techniques being used by students and staff council members. Parents relied exclusively on informal techniques which did not result in an increased understanding of the work of the council by the community. Council members were disappointed in their influence on school policy and did not accept the role of assisting in educational consensus formation in the community.

O'Neil (1972) attempted to isolate the community school council for specific study in order to determine its effectiveness in selected New England community schools. This investigation showed that no influence was exercised by the council over any phase of the academic curriculum; however, the council did have a significant effect on the amount and type of extended day and evening programs.

Another study of council effectiveness was conducted by Morgan (1960). The community of Wild Rose is small and had been effecting community development through the leadership of a community council since 1958. She discovered that the council could be described thus:

1. Membership was generally older and predominately female;

2. Members had high educational level and high income level;

3. Length of residence was wide-ranged;

4. Most members were of one religious faith.

Although no particular pattern of evaluation could be ascertained, the demonstrated effectiveness of the council supported the following guidelines by which they operated:

1. Council must agree on its most important purposes;

2. Council membership must be broad and inclusive;

3. Council must maintain effective communication between its members and the agencies represented;

4. Council must keep the public informed;

5. Council should help the community work toward problem solutions.

According to her findings, Morgan contended that the Wild Rose Community Council was engaged in community action rather than community development.

A variety of attitudinal studies have been conducted in recent years which relate specifically or implicitly to citizen participation. These inquiries were designed to investigate public attitudes toward education and to community schools, community council, staff, and participant attitudes toward community education generally and to both community education goals and objectives specifically. Other studies reflect the effect of community education or parent attitudes, teacher attitudes toward community education, and the like.

Ahola's 1969 study was designed to determine the relationship between the community school concept and selected public attitudes. He discovered that differences existed between those persons who participate in community education and those who do not. These attitudinal differences were found to be toward education in general, toward community education, toward community, and toward self and others (Ahola, 1969).

Garrison (1974) set out to determine if there were significant divergences in attitudes among community councils, adult participants and certified teaching staff in five domains; 1) education in general, 2) community education, 3) community, 4) self, and 5) others. The data, when analyzed, led to the following conclusions:

1. Attitudes on education in general were different when all subjects were homogeneously grouped. Two community schools showed a marked difference between groups when schools were analyzed separately. Differences in attitude were more pronounced between councils than the other groups.

2. Attitudes on community education were different when all subjects were homogeneously grouped. Two community schools showed a marked difference between groups when schools were analyzed separately. Differences in attitude were more pronounced between councils and staffs.

3. Attitudes on the community were different when all subjects were homogeneously grouped. Two community schools a marked difference between groups when schools were analyzed separately. Differences in attitude were more pronounced between participants than the other two groups.

4. Attitudes on self were similar when all subjects were homogeneously grouped.

5. Attitudes on others were similar when all subjects were homogeneously grouped.

An investigation by Jones (1972) was designed to determine if the attitudes of the members of the school-community advisory council were representative of the attitudes of members of the existing school-community support structure and the school faculty in each of six selected Los Angeles county schools. His findings showed that council members did, in fact, represent the attitudes of the leaders of the school-community support structure in their respective schools. Where school enrollment was under 1000 faculty advisory council members were representative of the attitudes of their respective faculties; in larger schools they were generally representative.

A study of the professional staff's and involved citizens' perceptions of community education objectives was undertaken by Faduski (1974). The following conclusions were reached as a result of an analysis of the data:

1. There are six objectives which should be considered as "primary objectives" in community education. a. Community Education extends use of the school facilities to all community members; b. Community Education promotes the school as the primary education agency in the community; c. Community Education provides teenagers with social, recreational and enrichment activities; d. Community Education provides adults an opportunity to obtain a high school diploma; e. Community Education provides recreation programs for all age groups in the community; f. Community Education

provides programs for senior citizens in the community.

2. There is one objective, "Community Education provides emergency financial assistance for those in the community requiring it," that was considered as not an objective of community education by all four groups.

3. The professional groups, central office staffs, elementary principals and elementary teachers were very similar in their perceptions of the objectives of community education.

4. When the involved citizens were compared with each of the professional groups, the greatest number of significantly different objectives occurred.

Saad (1974) attempted to investigate school-community advisory council members' attitudes toward goals (as defined by the Board of Education of Flint, Michigan). He found no significant differences in attitudes between the demographic variate groups (sex, age, level of income) tested in reference to the goal statements articulated by the Flint Board of Education.

An inquiry into the perceptions of the role of the community council in educational decision-making was undertaken by Malles (1974). He sought perceptions of parent-council members, teachers, and administrators regarding the real and ideal influence levels of the school-community council. All these groups were in general agreement as to the perceived role of the council in decision-making; the council had no influence or minor influence in the majority of the identified issues. Parents perceived their greatest influence in the issue of plant consideration; teachers and administrators regarded council influence of moderate or major influence in curriculum or plan consideration issues. With regard to the ideal role of the council, the greatest disparity among the three groups occured with the issues of site selection, priorities on building improvement, evaluating the prinicpal, selecting teacher aides, and evaluating teachers. He also found that, while 70% of the parents believed that the council had improved the educational program, only 15% of the teachers and less than 50% of the administrators concurred.

Burach (1977) proposed to ascertain the difference in attitudes of parents whose children attended community schools as opposed to those whose children attended traditional schools. In surveying 120 parents in each of four community schools and four traditional schools, he found that:

1. The attitudes of both groups of parents were positive, with a slight tendency for community school parents to be more positive;

2. Neither groups of parents was highly involved with their children's schools;

3. Community school parents did visit their children's schools somewhat more often than did traditional school parents;

4. Perhaps the community school is serving as a model of change for the traditional school inasmuch as the distinguishing traits of the community school were being absorbed by the traditional school;

5. No evidence was found to demonstrate a relationship between attitudes and demographic variable (age, income, race) and level of involvement of community school and traditional school parents.

Seniors (1974) intended to determine the attitudes of selected prospective teachers toward community participation in school affairs. Her major findings included:

1. There are no minimum areas of community participation in school affairs--each of the seven areas of involvement identified is one of significant maximum participation (per the Community Attitude Scale, or C.A.S.);

2. Respondents' attitudes toward the community are inversely related to the choices of areas of community participation;

3. There was significant involvement at the local school level in all areas except the district superintendent selection;

4. The expected teaching levels of the respondents reflect desired community participation in areas of advisory participation with regard to working conditions (teaching load and transfer policy), and in social participation

with community committee membership as theonly significant sub-area.

In his investigation of teacher perceptions of community education program impact on school community relations, Harrison (1977) surveyed 107 secondary teachers from a school system with a history of community education involvement and 119 secondary teachers from a system in the implementation stage of community education development. He found that:

1. The system with a community education "track record" has better community involvement and better school/ community relations;

2. The elements or indicators of community education are functioning in the community education system (community input, special needs programs, community resource coordination, improved school/community relations);

3. Teacher perceptions are important in influencing the program and process of community education;

4. Cooperation of the community, teachers, and students is essential to successful school/community relations, and all should be actively involved in the planning and decision-making process;

5. Community education programs are a viable approach in facilitating better school-community relations.

Fallon's study (1973) was designed to determine whether there is a significant relationship between selected demographic variables of community school directors and the congruence of their perceptions of black parent attitudes toward community education. In the course of his research, he found that black parent attitudes toward community education are relatively positive.

Greenblatt (1974) contended that the outcry for increased parental involvement in the educational decision-making process has resulted in the recent trend toward community schools. In her case study on the reality and ideology of citizen participation in small northeastern city community school, she found that:

1. Teachers were in fact receptive to citizen participation in the classroom and in academic decision-making;

2. Community residents failed to participate in the classrooms and the after-school activities;

3. Attendance at community advisory council meetings was extremely low; school administrators tended to dominate the meetings;

4. Residents who were not parents of children enrolled at the school continued to view the school as an institution for children and their parents only;

5. Reason provided for failing to participate included conflicts with familiar and financial responsibilities and lack of interest.

In 1978 the findings of the first national evaluation of federally-funded community education projects were released. The report indicated that 95% of the local project directors believed there was improvement in the level of community support for schools. This was substantiated by 90% of the superintendents and school board members, 91% of the school principals, 70% of the staffs of other agencies and 64% of the teaching staffs. Additionally, twenty project directors reported that there had been an increase in the extent of citizen participation in the project schools. Seventy-one percent of the school principals and 68% of the advisory council chairpersons concurred that citizen involvement was increasing. Over two-thirds of the participants reported that they felt more comfortable attending school functions than they had two years previously. They also claimed that they are participating in more school-sponsored activities than before.

Over three-fourths of the community residents reported that they believed school-community communication had improved substantially as a result of the project; 64% indicated that they felt that they had an impact on program offerings (Community Education Advisory Council, 1978).

All of the federally-funded projects had advisory councils; some projects had councils for each school or neighborhood, others had one overall council for the project. According to their chairpersons, the councils were moderately to very actively involved in such areas as assessing community needs, program planning and development, and evaluating/assessing program success. They were least active in preparing proposals.

> From a slightly more operational point of view, the data on project advisory councils are of interest. First, it may be concluded from the responses of the project directors and the council chairpersons that the councils generally do function and do make a worthwhile contribution to project operations. Second, the data suggest they tend had to be led by the traditional school-community citizen leadership, rather than new elements, citizens who were previously uninvolved. According to the council chairpersons, the typical way of joining a council was to be asked by a member of the project staff, and most chairpersons had previous office holding experience in a school or other civic organization. On the one hand, this may be a factor in the effectiveness of the councils, but on the other hand it may be a disappointment to those community educators who view the councils as a means for developing new leadership; if the latter is occuring (and despite this limited data it may well be), the new leaders have yet to take command. (Community Education Advisory Council, 1978)

RESEARCH NEEDS

In response to the dearth of research in the area of community education a Research Symposium was conducted in April 1971, at Ball State University. This effort was indicative of a first comprehensive attempt to identify areas of needed research in community education with respect to the state of the art, models, and future development (analytical, theoretical, and operational, respectively). A subsequent symposium was held in 1974 to generate more research ideas; concurrently, the former Office of Community Education Research at the University of Michigan identified, in its research monographs, areas of needed research. The Research Committee of the National Community Education Association has from time to time addressed the necessity of conducting research in community education. It is the purpose of this paper to present some ideas for needed research with the hope of generating additional research needs and questions from the field. Following is a synthesis of the identified research needs and questions that were deemed crucial to the development of community education development with respect to citizen participation and/or involvement (presented in no particular order):

1. What is the status of citizen participation in community education programs (non-federally-funded)?

2. What is the role of non-educators and/or paraprofessionals in community schools?

3. What are the patterns of community council development in community involvement in community education programs?

4. How are community councils best structured?

5. What is the work of a community council?

6. What is the influence of community councils on community education versus communities where no councils are in existence?

7. Does community education actually reach those people who are not already "doers" in a community?

8. Does the establishment of a community school create a favorable vote of response for public education programs?

9. What socio-economic groups appear to be most frequently represented in a community education program? Advisory councils?

10. To what extent have communities supported, through local effort, community education as opposed to a reliance on outside funding sources?

11. Do existing community councils represent the entire community?

12. Is there a normal transfer from adult education to community involvement?

13. What are the effects of community control and decentralization on community education, and vice versa?

14. How effective are existing community surveys?

15. Is there a relationship between types of funding and the involvement of people in the decision-making process?

16. Does involvement change the attitudes of people?

17. To what extent does the existing power structure respect the introduction of community education?

18. Can a paraprofessional function as a community school director? Under what conditions?

19. Are the schools or people ethnocentric with regard to community education?

20. How dependent is community education on good public relations?

21. How does community involvement affect the self-concept of low income families?

22. Does community education serve all ethnic groups? If not, what forces inhibit it?

23. Does community education affect interracial relationships positively or negatively?

24. Why are school boards sometimes non-supportive of community education?

25. Does community education affect the attitudes of rural citizens toward district reorganization?

26. What competencies should be inherent in council members?

27. Who decides the amount of power a council should have?

28. What is the influence of the community on school policy?

29. What is the influence of the school on community policy?

30. What is the influence of informal organizations on school policy?

31. What is the structure and function of advisory councils with respect to 1) assisting in millage/bond issues 2) community agency coordination, 3) dealing with the community power structure, 4) in the decentralization process, 5) activities which take place outside of and

after school, 6) activities which take place within and during school?

32. What is the structure and role of advisory councils in relation to 1) parent-teacher associations, 2) parents within attendance boundaries, 3) teacher unions, 4) business and fraternal organizations, 5) city administration, 6) students?

33. What are determinants of council effectiveness with regard to 1) dispelling community apathy, 2) achievement level of students, 3) reduction of vandalism, 4) pupil discipline and safety, 5) pupil attendance, 6) self evaluation, 6) student rights and responsibilities and 7) patterns of communication between self and school boards, superintendents, principals, community school directors, teachers, parents, students, and non-parent community members?

Following is a synthesis of research needs and questions that evolved from the literature and the research:

1. Does community education foster citizen participation, or vice versa?

2. Do citizen participation programs emanating from the grass-roots level have more "staying-power" and effectiveness than mandated programs?

3. What is the relationship between school boards and community councils?

4. What is the nature and extent of community council support structures?

5. What is the criteria for evaluating council success?

6. What is the extent of utilization of volunteers and paraprofessionals?

7. What is the role of volunteers and paraprofessionals in a community education program?

8. What aspects of personality and/or ways of working with a community council are responsible for a meaningful relationship and effective operation?

9. What is the role of the student in citizen participation?

10. What models have been developed for council orientation and training?

11. What research from other fields (sociology, anthropology, psychology, and so forth) could be used in community education development?

The following list of questions was generated by members of the Citizen Participation Review Team who read a working draft of the paper and were asked to pose additional questions for research.

1. What research findings are present with regard to other forms of citizen participation beyond volunteerism and advisory councils?

2. To what extent does community education foster the development of community problem solving outside the context of an organization or sponsoring agency?

3. What does research have to say about the limits of citizen involvement? At what points is it not beneficial and results in decreasing returns for all involved?

4. What research from overseas (particularly Socialist countries) has dealt with citizen participation and what are the findings? (Particularly community education overseas?)

5. What is the impact of the sponsoring organizations on the degree of autonomy and other factors of how citizen groups develop?

6. What community education approaches to citizen participation are suited especially for rural or isolated areas? Urban? Suburban?

7. To what extent do community residents view community education as a community participation process?

8. What are the identified negative aspects to citizen participation in community education?

9. What are the effects of mandated state citizen participation approaches through various laws and regulations?

10. How can citizen participation be fostered in community education over an extended time framework of ten to twenty years? What conditions are necessary to assist with longer course development?

11. What societal factors affect citizen participation in community education?

12. What kind of leadership training is necessary for community councils?

13. What are the most effective ways to achieve representation on a community council?

14. What types of administrative leadership styles are necessary to work with citizens?

15. What are the differences in function of various types of community councils (e.g. control, advisory, school-related, community problem-oriented etc.)?

16. In what ways is the concept of power an operating factor in community education?

17. Is there a relationship between "organizational development" in schools and community or citizen involvement?

18. What factors enhance or impede an administrator ability to facilitate citizen involvement?

19. What is the extent to which training or skill development opportunities are provided for citizens?

20. How significant is the community school coordinator's role in bringing about community involvement in decision-making?

21. Are community based process-oriented approaches to community involvement more effective than involvement through a program-oriented, community school approach?

22. What are the comparative effects of the primary funding source in community education (local, state, or federal) on citizen participation?

23. What are the similar and contrasting functions of school district-wide and local school building community councils?

24. Are there distinct phases in the citizen participation process that characterize well-established community education projects?

25. What differences exist in citizen participation functions among urban, suburban and rural community education projects?

26. Are citizen attitudes influenced as a result of participating in a community education activity, program a project?

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